

SOME MORPHO-SYNTACTIC PROBLEMS  
IN TEACHING ENGLISH TO SPEAKERS OF MANDARIN CHINESE

by

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## CHAPTER I

### INTRODUCTION

#### 1.0 Statement of Problem

This paper attempts a discussion, on the basis of contrastive analysis of English and Mandarin morpho-syntactic patterns, of potential difficulties faced by a Mandarin speaker in learning English. We will observe for this purpose some of the more common morpho-syntactic problems with special reference to negative and question patterns, but by no means exhaust the morpho-syntactic problems encountered by Mandarin speakers learning English.

1.01 It is to be assumed that individuals tend to transfer the forms and meanings, and the distribution of forms and meanings of their native language and culture to the foreign language and culture -- both productively when attempting to speak the language and to act in the culture, and receptively when attempting to grasp and understand the language and culture as practiced by natives.<sup>1</sup> In learning English, the Mandarin speaker tends to transfer the sentence forms, modification devices, and number and tense patterns of his native language.

1.02 The fundamental principle guiding this study is based on the pronouncement given by Fries: "The most effective materials are those that are based upon a scientific description of the language to be learned, carefully compared with a parallel description of the native language of the learner."<sup>2</sup> Such

contrastive analysis enables one to identify differences and similarities between the two language structures. In the process of learning, those structures that are similar will be easier to learn and those that are different will be more difficult. As similarity and difference, to a certain degree, determine ease and difficulty in learning, the learner can learn more effectively and satisfactorily if he can control those differences.

1.03 General American English is the target language and Mandarin Chinese the native language. The former is an Indo-European language, while the latter belongs to the Sino-Tibetan family.

### 1.1 Review of Literature

A review of the literature on English and Mandarin morphology and syntax yields a number of works useful in this study.

1.11 Studies of English. There are many books on English morphology and syntax by linguists, such as those by Fries,<sup>3</sup> Francis,<sup>4</sup> Hill,<sup>5</sup> Trager and Smith,<sup>6</sup> Stageberg.<sup>7</sup> These books provide descriptive analysis of the English language and emphasize grammatical structures and such features as word order, inflection, intonation and function words, which are grammatical signals that systematically convey meanings and relationships. There are also books on descriptive linguistics by such authorities as Bloomfield,<sup>8</sup> Gleason,<sup>9</sup> Hockett,<sup>10</sup> Pike,<sup>11</sup> which deal with various language systems and techniques of analysis.

1.12 Studies of Mandarin Chinese. Works of Yuen Ren Chao,<sup>12</sup> Harry S. Aldrich,<sup>13</sup> and Fries and Shen<sup>14</sup> of the University of Michigan English Language Institute, are important sources in this

field. Chao and Aldrich contributed to descriptive analysis of Mandarin; Fries and Shen programmed intensive courses in English for Chinese speakers and in Chinese for English speakers.

1.13 In the field of teaching and learning a second language, Fries' Teaching and Learning English as a Foreign Language, Lado's Language Teaching and Linguistics Across Cultures, Allen's Readings in Applied English Linguistics and Teaching English as a Second Language, Rivers' The Psychologist and the Foreign Language Teacher, and Politzer's Foreign Language Learning: A Linguistic Introduction contain very valuable materials, such as methods in comparing two grammatical structures, techniques and methods in learning a second language, and learning psychology.

## 1.2 Justification of Study

Language learning is a difficult task. For effective results, we can hardly over-emphasize the importance of modern linguistic approaches in language teaching. As "the thoughts of any people are molded and restricted by the patterns of a limited series of sounds, a limited series of arbitrary morphemes, a limited number of rigid syntactic constructions",<sup>15</sup> knowing what the pattern is, precisely what feature in that pattern is troubling the learner, and what different feature he is substituting, can lead to a simple hint or suggestion that will help solve the learner's problem.

1.21 One of the primary problems the Mandarin speaker faces in learning English is a difference in teaching system. In Taiwan, most teachers of English are still using traditional methodology which emphasizes memorization of grammatical rules and translation

exercises. The learner learns about the language, but when he comes to actual usage of the language studied, he often speaks English in Mandarin patterns. It is, therefore, believed that results from this contrastive analysis of certain morpho-syntactic problems can serve as an aid in programming teaching materials in Taiwan.

### 1.3 Procedures of Study

This report is in two parts. The first part is a general outline of the contrastive analysis of the morpho-syntactic patterns of English and counterpart structures of Mandarin. It includes discussions of certain features of morphemes, inflection, sentences, parts of speech, and function words with predictions of potential problems for the teacher or the learner of English. The second part is a relatively more specific contrastive analysis of English and Mandarin negation and interrogative forms. This analysis includes discussions of some basic negative and question patterns of the two languages.

1.31 A pattern practice drill<sup>16</sup> was designed and included for purposes of reference and practice. When the learner has acquired the basic patterns and a proficiency in producing them automatically, it will not be too difficult for him to learn potential expansions.

1.32 The conversion of affirmative to negative and statement to question, as presented here, is based on a transformational grammar approach.<sup>17</sup>

## CHAPTER II

### CONTRASTIVE ANALYSIS OF MORPHO-SYNTACTIC PATTERNS OF ENGLISH AND MANDARIN CHINESE

#### 2.0. Introduction

Presented in this chapter are some general descriptions of English and Mandarin grammar at the morpho-syntactic level. The description and analysis are presented from the linguistic point of view and problem spots are analyzed. It should be noted that not all the grammatical problems are discussed. For this study, patterns that reflect significant differences between the two languages were chosen because the differences underlie the most common and persistent problems for Mandarin speakers learning English.

#### 2.1 Morpheme

The morpheme is the smallest meaningful unit of linguistic structure.<sup>18</sup> It must meet the three criteria:

- a. It is a word, or a part of word that has meaning.
- b. It cannot be divided into smaller meaningful parts without violation of its meaning or without meaningless remainders.
- c. It recurs in differing verbal environments with a relatively stable meaning.<sup>19</sup>

2.11 In English there are two types of morphemes -- free and bound. "A free morpheme is one that can be uttered alone with meaning",<sup>20</sup> e.g., "date". "A bound morpheme, unlike the free, cannot be uttered alone with meaning. It is always annexed to one or more morphemes to form a word",<sup>21</sup> e.g., the /-s/ in "dates".



This particular example is an illustration of the process known as inflection. These smallest meaningful units, which represent bases and affixes, are components of word level constructions. Certain bound morphemes indicate the form classes of words, such as, "-tion" generally indicates a noun; "-ly", an adjective or an adverb.

2.12 Mandarin. Practically all morphemes in Mandarin are monosyllabic, e.g., /mey<sup>3</sup>/<sup>22</sup> 'beauty'. A very small number of morphemes of obscure etymology or of foreign origin have more than one syllable, e.g., /lɔ̌ci/ 'logic'.<sup>23</sup> A morpheme is a free morph when it is also a syntactic word, e.g., /haw<sup>3</sup>/ 'good'. It is a bound morph when it combines with one or more other morphs to form a syntactic word,<sup>24</sup> which functions as one unit, e.g., /nan<sup>2</sup>/ 'male' and /hay<sup>2</sup>/ 'child', bound morphs, form the syntactic word /nan<sup>2</sup>hay<sup>2</sup>/ 'boy'. Note also that a bound morph is always bound, but that a free morph is not always free. Almost all free morphs except interjections can be bound to form layered syntactic words.<sup>25</sup> In short, syntactic units in Mandarin are often more like English compound words such as 'blackboard' and 'wind-mill' than words as 'particular' or 'pretty'. The meaning may or may not be derived from the morphemes of which the syntactic unit is composed. However, in Mandarin, there do exist some grammatical morphemes - with the features of English morphemes - which are shown to be such by loss of tone or other transactions of tone and stress: /lɔ̌/ of perfected action, /mín/ of plurality, /te/ of adverbs, possessives and relative clauses, and /tɕə/ and /ɔ̌r/ used as supports for nouns.<sup>26</sup> From the above analysis, we would predict that the Mandarin speaker

would encounter difficulty in word formation. In lieu of "university", he might say 'big school' which is the literal translation of the Mandarin syntactic word /ta<sup>4</sup> ſue<sup>2</sup>/ 'university'.

## 2.2 Inflection

The most conspicuous difference in the word formation of English from that of Mandarin is in inflection. Inflection is that part of morphology which involves inflectional affixes. Inflectional affixes are bound forms that convey grammatical signals, such as plural number, genitive case, past tense, comparative forms, etc. In English, the inflection occurs in the word unit itself, e.g., "boys" is the plural form of "boy"; while Mandarin, due to its monosyllabic characteristic, has no inflection. "Inflection, when required, is supplied by use of auxiliary words or enclitics"<sup>27</sup> e.g., /jen<sup>2</sup>/ 'people', /jen<sup>2</sup> te/ 'people's'. In other words, Mandarin does not employ inflection in the English sense. The function performed in English by inflection is performed in Mandarin by auxiliary words and enclitics. For convenience, however, we will continue to refer to this factor as inflection in Mandarin as well as English.

2.21 English. English words are inflected by using suffixes and replatives. "Suffixes are affixes which follow the root with which they are most closely associated",<sup>28</sup> e.g.,

worked = work (base form) + suffix -ed (past tense additive suffix).

Replatives are a special type of morphemic element which functions in some ways like the suffix, e.g., blew = blow + e ← (o)  
/bluw/ ← /blow/ + /uw ← (ow)/.

The past tense is differentiated from the base form by a replacement of syllable nucleus (It is not restricted to nuclei; consider spend: spent). Therefore, replacive /uw←(ow)/ must be considered as an allomorph of the morpheme whose most familiar form is -ed. The English noun plural morpheme also has replacives among its allomorphs.<sup>29</sup> Listed below are the inflectional suffixes:<sup>30</sup>

- a. Noun possessive -'s (dog's) {-S<sub>1</sub>}
- b. Noun plural -s (dogs) {-S<sub>2</sub>}
- c. Verb present third-person singular -s (vacates) {-S<sub>3</sub>}
- d. Verb present participle -ing (barking)
- e. Verb past tense -ed (dreamed) {-D<sub>1</sub>}
- f. Verb past participle -ed, -en, etc. (dreamed, chosen) {-D<sub>2</sub>}
- g. Comparative -er (sweeter)
- h. Superlative -est (sweetest)

Paradigms of inflection will be discussed later.

2.22 Mandarin. There is no inflection in words themselves.

To compare with English, the following is noted:

a. Noun possessive. The particle /te/ is used to indicate possessive. ("A particle is a suffix attached to a phrase or sentence as a whole.")<sup>31</sup> For instance, "my book" in Mandarin is formed by placing /te/ between the owner /wuo<sup>3</sup>/ 'I' and /šu/ 'book', thus /wuo<sup>3</sup> te šu/ 'my book' forms a phrase.

b. Noun plural. /mín/ is used with personal pronouns to form the plural. It is also added to nouns denoting persons to form the plural, e.g., /niy<sup>3</sup>/ 'you': /niy<sup>3</sup> mín/ 'you' (plural), syntactic word, /nan<sup>2</sup> jen<sup>2</sup>/ 'man': /nan<sup>2</sup> jen<sup>2</sup> mín/ 'men'.

c. Verb present third-person singular. No inflection is required. No agreement between the subject and the verb is required.

d. Verb present participle. /čay<sup>4</sup> tzay<sup>4</sup>/ - denoting progressive -

may be used before the verb, e.g., /čəŋ<sup>4</sup> tɕay<sup>4</sup> tsow<sup>3</sup> lu<sup>4</sup>/ 'to be walking'.

e. Verb past tense. The verb may be followed by suffix /kuo<sup>4</sup>/, e.g., /lay<sup>2</sup>/ 'come': /lay<sup>2</sup> kuo<sup>4</sup>/ 'came'.

f. Verb past participle. /lə/ is used to denote perfected action, and the passive is indicated by /pey<sup>4</sup>/ 'by'.

g. Comparative. Adverbial /i tien<sup>3</sup>/ 'a little' or /šieh/ 'somewhat' is used after the word in the comparative, e.g., /ta<sup>4</sup>/ 'big': /ta<sup>4</sup> šieh/ 'bigger'; while /pi<sup>3</sup> čiaw<sup>4</sup>/ 'than' or /kəŋ<sup>4</sup>/ 'more' is used before the comparative, e.g., /ta<sup>4</sup>/ 'big': /kəŋ<sup>4</sup> ta<sup>4</sup>/ 'bigger'.

h. Superlative. Adverbial /tsey<sup>4</sup>/ '-est' or 'most' is used before the word, e.g., /ta<sup>4</sup>/ 'big': /tsey<sup>4</sup> ta<sup>4</sup>/ 'biggest'.

2.23 The above contrastive observations suggest that the following paradigms of English inflection would be very helpful to the programmer of course materials. The contrast between English and Mandarin as well as the contrast in forms and usage in English provide insight into the problems that Mandarin speakers would encounter and the drills can be so designed as to achieve more effective results.

#### Noun Paradigm<sup>32</sup>

Forms Inflectional suffixes models	Stem	Possessive {-S1}	Plural {-S2}	Plural-Possessive {-S1} + {-S2}
	woman	woman's	women	women's
	doctor	doctor's	doctors	doctors'

## Verb Paradigm

Forms	Stem	Present 3rd-person singular	Present participle	Past Tense	Past participle
Inflectional suffixes		{-S <sub>3</sub> }	{-ing}	{-D <sub>1</sub> }	{-D <sub>2</sub> }
Models	show ring cut	shows rings cuts	showing ringing cutting	showed rang cut	showed/shown rung cut

## Comparative Paradigm

Forms	Stem	Comparative	Superlative
Inflectional suffixes		{-er}	{-est}
Models	sweet lively	sweeter livelier	sweetest liveliest

2.24 The teacher must pay special attention in training the learners to acquire the noun plurals, verb present third-person singular patterns and verb past tense forms. From native language habit, the Mandarin speaker tends to omit these characteristics and make 'ungrammatical' utterances.

2.25 In English, correlations of forms serve as grammatical signals, e.g., {-S<sub>3</sub>}, a subject-verb relation, is in contrast to a modifier-head relation: A marriage promises... : A marriage promise...<sup>33</sup> The absence of such concord in Mandarin makes it difficult for the learners to readily adopt those forms. The language teacher, therefore, must provide drills to help them develop habits of concord.

2.3 Sentence

2.31 English. Bloomfield defined a sentence as "an independent linguistic form, not included by virtue of any grammatical construction in any larger linguistic form". The independence of a grammatical form from those that precede and follow, if any, is often

shown by intonation.<sup>34</sup> Intonation patterns will be discussed under a separate section. Major basic sentence patterns in English may be classified as:<sup>35</sup>

- a. Equational Sentence - Subject Be Complement  
The student is diligent/a boy.
- b. Intransitive Sentence-Subject V intransitive (Adverbial)  
The student works hard.
- c. Transitive Sentence - Subject V object taking Object  
The student does his homework.
- d. Concatenating Sentence-Subject V concatenating Post Verbal  
I saw him eating lunch.
- e. Passive Sentence - Subject Be/Get V<sub>pp</sub> by Agent/with Means  
The window was broken ((by the boy)  
(with a stone))

2.32 Mandarin sentence types. Mandarin also has basic sentence types utilizing three slots corresponding to the English subject,

verb, and post-verb, e.g., wuc<sup>3</sup> nien<sup>4</sup> šu  
I read book  
(I'm studying.)

but in addition Mandarin has basic sentence types utilizing only verb and post-verb slots with no subject required or subject and post-verb slots with no verb required,<sup>36</sup> e.g.,

lay<sup>2</sup>    čh<sup>2</sup>    la  
come    late    (perfected particle)  
(I'm late.)

hwa      haw<sup>3</sup>      k<sup>h</sup>an<sup>4</sup>  
flower   good   locking  
(Flowers are beautiful.)

Many simple sentences can be spoken without any need for tense, person, or number agreement. By learning the pronouns, a few

simple verbs and the names of a large number of objects, one can put together hundreds of simple sentences by varying the combinations used, e.g.,

wuo<sup>3</sup> šan<sup>4</sup> šue<sup>2</sup>  
I go school  
(I go to school.)

tha. šan<sup>4</sup> šue<sup>2</sup>  
he go school  
(He goes to school.)

wuo<sup>3</sup> tsuo<sup>2</sup> thien šan<sup>4</sup> šue<sup>2</sup>  
I yesterday go school  
(I went to school yesterday.)

Semantically, the "actor-action-goal" relationship ascribed to English does not hold for Mandarin, and the direction of action in verbs is to be inferred from context (cf. topic and comment), e.g.,

čiy pu<sup>4</sup> čhə lə  
chicken not eat

means both 'The chickens are not eating' in reference to feeding poultry and 'I don't want any more chicken' referring to dining. If Mandarin speakers tend to transfer this lack of "actor-action-goal" orientation to English, the functions of subject, verb, and post verb should be clearly described to them, and this orientation emphasized in the drills provided for them.

2.33 English word order presents problems to Mandarin speakers. Word order signals structural meaning; for instance, "Mary hit John" and "John hit Mary" are different; "can he come" with /233↑/ (rising) signals a question in contrast to "he can come" with /231↓/ (falling), which is a statement.<sup>37</sup>

Both languages have certain restrictions on word order but they are different. From the above descriptions, it is noted that English has a relatively small number of basic sentence patterns, while

Mandarin has a relatively larger number of basic sentence patterns. When Mandarin speakers speak English, they tend to allow more variation for certain slots in the sentence. Pattern practice drills would be useful in their acquisition of the basic patterns.

2.34 Intonation Patterns. In both languages, every clause contains and is held together by an intonation contour which contains a pitch pattern with an accompanying terminal.

2.341 English. A written sentence may stand as a written symbolization of several different spoken utterances. In other words, in spoken English, intonation contours are probably the dominant elements in the syntax-signalling system.<sup>38</sup> The intonation patterns listed below are based on a widely accepted analysis which posits four pitch phonemes and three phonemic clause terminals. The four pitches are symbolized by the numbers, 1 (low), 2 (mid), 3 (high), and 4 (extra-high). The three terminals are indicated by arrow heads as follows:

/↓/ falling: falling pitch with a rapid trailing away of the voice into silence.

/↑/ rising: a sudden, rapid, but short rise in the pitch.

/→/ sustained: a sustention of the pitch accompanied by prolongation of the last syllable of the clause and some diminishing of volume.

The normal pitch of the voice of the speaker is /2/, which is a relatively common pitch and serves as a standard of comparison for the others. /'/ denotes the primary stress of the clause.<sup>39</sup>

- a. 231↓ (falling) for statement, wh-question, e.g.,

2                  3                  1↓  
He is a doctor.



2    3    1↑  
Who is he?

b. 233↑ (rising) for yes-no question, initial grammatical unit,

e.g.,        2        3        3↑  
Is he a doctor?

c. 321↓ (falling) for command or advice, e.g.,

3                2    1↓  
Pick up the book.

d. 232→ (sustained) for continuation of utterance, e.g.,

2                3                2→  
English is difficult (but ...)

2.342 Mandarin. The following is quoted from The Mandarin Primer by Prof. Chao: "Mandarin is one of the few Chinese dialects which is a mixture of French rhythm and English rhythm. The majority of syntactic words - the majority from a lexical point of view - have the French rhythm, that is each syllable of a word is moderately stressed, with the last syllable slightly more stressed. There are variations in stress and rhythm between syntactic words in the sentence, but these do not differ in principle from similar variations in English." Mandarin is a tone language; therefore, pitch is distributed over morphemes and words. Lado<sup>40</sup> considers that "tone languages usually have an intonation system over and above the tone system of its words. It tends to be a simple one limited to two additional pitch phonemes occurring at phrase and sentence final points." Hockett also states, "The clearest thing about intonations is their scope: there is usually little doubt as to where a particular intonation begins and ends. The exact nature and number of the intonations is less clear. For the last macrosegment of an utterance, we indicated by terminal /./ a lowering

of pitch from nuclear stress to the end, and by /?/ the absence of such a fall in pitch; thus in short utterance /tuei<sup>4</sup> ma?/ 'is that right', /tuei<sup>4</sup> te./ 'that's right'. Under /?/ we are probably lumping together several phonemically distinct types; possibly also several are covered by /./"<sup>41</sup>

2.343 The stress and pitch patterns of the learner's native language do interfere with the practice of the intonation patterns of the foreign language. But the real problem does not so much concern the "colorless" intonation patterns as the accented patterns in which subtle intonation changes affect the meaning of the utterance. This is something related to the speaker's social and cultural background and must be learned in the environment of native speakers.

#### 2.4 Parts of Speech . . . .

2.41 English. The traditional definitions of parts of speech are notional and they either include too much or exclude too much, e.g., the traditional definition of a verb is: "A verb is a word that denotes action, being or state of being." By this definition, a verb like "think" cannot be precisely classified as such because it denotes a mental process; therefore, it is neither a visible action, nor a being, nor a state of being. From the point of view of descriptive grammar, a part of speech is a functioning pattern;<sup>42</sup> classifications of words or groups of words are in accordance with their positions, forms or functions. The position classes are nominal, verbal, adjectival and adverbial. The form classes are nouns, verbs, adjectives, and adverbs. The function classes are determined by, as indicated by the term, the function the word

performs in a sentence, such as subject of a verb, object of a verb, object of a preposition.

2.42 Mandarin. The parts of speech in Mandarin are far more flexible than in English. A Mandarin word primarily connotes an idea; the particular part of speech which this word happens to be depends upon its position in a sentence. A part of speech, then, is a form class whose members are syntactic words which have the same grammatical function.<sup>43</sup>

2.43 Modifiers. "A modifier is a subordinate element in an endocentric structure."<sup>44</sup> It is a word or word group that affects the meaning of a headword in that it describes, limits, intensifies and/or adds to the meaning of the head."<sup>45</sup> The position of the modifier in English often confuses the Mandarin speaker because the modifier-head relation in Mandarin is much simpler -- in general, the modifier precedes the head except in the case of emphatic function. In English it is a two pattern system -- some modifiers precede, and some follow the head, although most precede the head. A Mandarin speaker has other problems with the English modification system, such as, (1) the position of a modifier clause, that is, it is not necessarily placed immediately after the word it modifies; and (2) the arrangement of strings of modifiers, that is, strings of modifiers or strings of modifier phrases usually follow a certain order in their arrangement. The following tests are aids to the identification of the modifier-head relation:<sup>46</sup>

a. Position: the \_\_\_\_\_ flower: The slot preceding the head is usually filled by a modifier. (A distinction between a compound noun and an adjectival-plus-noun can be made from their suprasegmentals,

i.e., stress patterns, e.g., 'that apple pie' (with secondary-primary stress pattern) signals an adjectival-plus-noun; and, 'that apple tree' (with primary-tertiary stress pattern) signals a compound noun.)

b. Meaning: 'a butterfly in the garden which was fluttering among the flowers': From the meaning, it is obvious that the underlined clause modifies the noun butterfly.

c. Formal cues: 'the flowers in the garden which were blossoming beautifully' in contrast to 'the flowers in the garden which was blossoming profusely': The modifier-head relation is indicated explicitly in the formal cues.

These tests are very useful in determining the relationship between the modifiers and the words they modify. Mis-pairing of the modifier and the head may lead to a mis-interpretation of the underlying meaning. Since the part of speech in Mandarin is determined largely by the position of the word in the sentence, it is believed that the above description of English parts of speech would be helpful to the language teacher in designing drills for practice.

## 2.5 Function Words

Function words in English signal particular structural meanings.<sup>47</sup> The Mandarin speaker often finds function words difficult to learn, especially those most frequently used words -- articles and prepositions.

2.51 Articles. English. In general, singular count nouns take the articles "the" or "a", plural count nouns and mass nouns may take "the" but never "a". The following chart illustrates the

distribution:<sup>48</sup>

	Count			Mass		
	def	indef	generic	def	indef	generic
Singular	the	a	a	the	some	Ø
Plural	the	some	Ø			

Mandarin. Mandarin Chinese has no articles. Nouns may have either generic or particular meaning with no difference in form,<sup>49</sup>

e.g., jen<sup>2</sup> ših<sup>4</sup> li<sup>3</sup>šən<sup>4</sup> ton<sup>4</sup> wu<sup>4</sup>  
 man is rational animal (Man is a rational animal.)

Definite and indefinite reference is often determined by word order. In subject position a noun usually refers to something definite, while in object position it usually refers to something indefinite.<sup>50</sup>

2.52 Preposition. English. Prepositions are a type of function words which most commonly occur as the initial word in a class of phrase called prepositional phrases. They clearly mark this construction type.<sup>51</sup> Some words function either as prepositions or as conjunctions. These can be distinguished from their constructions, i.e., in prepositional constructions a noun phrase follows the function word; while in conjunctive constructions, a clause follows the function word, thus 'I'll wait until tomorrow' is a prepositional construction and 'I'll wait until he comes' is a conjunctive construction. The usage of prepositions constitutes difficulty to Mandarin speakers because the same word may be used with different meanings or several prepositions all may indicate one thing, e.g., "at five", "on the 10th", "in 1967" all indicate adverbial of time. In Mandarin either no preposition is used or the word /tʂay<sup>4</sup>/ is used, thus, tʂa wu<sup>2</sup> tien<sup>3</sup> lay<sup>2</sup>  
 he five o'clock come  
 (He'll come at five.)

tha<sup>2</sup> ši<sup>2</sup> haw<sup>4</sup> lay<sup>2</sup>  
 he 10th day come (He'll come on the 10th.)

In Mandarin, prepositions can be verbs which are usually in the first position in verbal expression series,<sup>52</sup>e.g.,

tha<sup>4</sup> tzay<sup>4</sup> čia  
 he at home (He's at home.)

The complexity in preposition usage in English makes it difficult for Mandarin speakers to master the use of prepositions.

## 2.6 Summary and Conclusions

The following is a brief summary of the morpho-syntactic contrasts derived from the preceding descriptions:

### English

### Mandarin Chinese

- |   |  |
|---|--|
| 1. Morphemes in English may be either bound or free, but not both.                  | 1. Most morphemes are free-morphs, but many free morphs can be bound in making syntactic words.  |
| 2. Inflections are affixed directly to nouns, pronouns, verbs, adjectives, adverbs. | 2. Nouns, pronouns, verbs, adjectives, adverbs are not themselves-inflected. Where in English inflection is required, it is supplied in Mandarin by use of auxiliary words or enclitics. |
| 3. The plural number of a noun is usually indicated by an inflectional affix.       | 3. Plural number of personal pronoun or personal noun is indicated by a morpheme. Other nouns cannot have plural markers.  |

- |  |   |
|--|---|
| <p>4. Past tense is usually indicated by suffixes {-D<sub>1</sub>' and {-D<sub>2</sub>'.</p>   | <p>4. Temporal aspect is indicated by a time element or particles.</p>  |
| <p>5. Concord between subject and verb is marked in third-person singular non-past tense.</p>  | <p>5. Agreement between subject and verb is not required.</p>   |
| <p>6. Parts of speech can be classified by memberships in position, form, and function paradigms. Many words are members of more than one such paradigm.</p> | <p>6. Words primarily connote ideas; part of speech function is flexible and dependent on position in a sentence.</p> |
| <p>7. English has a relatively small number of basic sentence patterns.</p>  | <p>7. Mandarin has a relatively larger number of basic sentence patterns.</p>   |
| <p>8. English has three terminal junctures: /↓→↑/.</p>   | <p>8. Mandarin has two terminal junctures: /↓↑/.</p>  |
| <p>9. Articles and prepositions are essential in some structures.</p>  | <p>9. Mandarin has no articles, and generally prepositions are not used.</p>  |
| <p>10. Pitch in English is over the phrase.</p>  | <p>10. Mandarin is a tone language with pitch over each word.</p>   |

From this summary of the differences between English and Mandarin, it is possible to draw the conclusions that:

1. Mandarin speakers find inflection difficult because they are not accustomed to this language feature.

2. In general, articles and prepositions are not used in Mandarin. When Mandarin speakers speak English, they tend to omit those function words.

3. Mandarin speakers will have problems with English intonation, particularly placement of stress and smoothing of pitch contours over words into a contour over the whole sentence. Pattern practice drills will help the learners acquire the basic intonation patterns.



## CHAPTER III

### CONTRASTIVE ANALYSIS OF NEGATION AND QUESTION IN ENGLISH AND MANDARIN CHINESE

#### 3.0 Introduction

This chapter contains an analysis of negation and question forms in English and Mandarin Chinese. Transformational grammarians consider the English question and negation forms to be converted from statement forms and, therefore, transformations.

#### 3.1 Negation

Negative forms of Mandarin will be discussed first. English negative forms will be analyzed in the next section.

3.1.1 Mandarin. To form a negative sentence, a particle /pu<sup>4</sup>/, /mey<sup>2</sup>/, /m<sup>4</sup>/, or /wu<sup>4</sup>/ is used. The particle precedes the word negated.

a. /pu<sup>4</sup>/ generally indicates negative non-past tense. It may negate adjectives and adverbs as well as verbs.

th<sup>a</sup> lay<sup>2</sup>  
he come  
(He's coming.)

th<sup>a</sup> pu<sup>4</sup> lay<sup>2</sup>  
he not come  
(He's not coming.)

th<sup>a</sup> kaw  
he tall  
(He's tall.)

th<sup>a</sup> pu<sup>4</sup> kaw  
he not tall  
(He's not tall.)

b. /mey<sup>2</sup>/ generally indicates negative past tense. It is used to modify verbs only.

th<sup>a</sup> lay<sup>2</sup> kuo<sup>4</sup>  
he come past  
(He came.)

th<sup>a</sup> mey<sup>2</sup> lay<sup>2</sup> kuo<sup>4</sup>  
he not come past  
(He didn't come.)

c. Idiomatic usage. /pu<sup>4</sup>/ negates /ših<sup>4</sup>/是 'be', i.e., /pu<sup>2</sup>ših<sup>4</sup>/53 and /mey<sup>2</sup>/ negates /yo<sup>3</sup>/有 'have', i.e., /mey<sup>2</sup> yo<sup>3</sup>/.54

tha ših <sup>4</sup> haw <sup>3</sup> hay <sup>2</sup>	tha pu <sup>2</sup> ših <sup>4</sup> haw <sup>3</sup> hay <sup>2</sup>
he is good boy	he not is good boy
(He's a good boy.)	(He's not a good boy.)
tha yo <sup>3</sup> čhien <sup>2</sup>	tha mey <sup>2</sup> yo <sup>3</sup> čhien <sup>2</sup>
he have money	he not have money
(He has money.)	(He doesn't have money.)

d. /wu<sup>4</sup>/ and /mɔ<sup>4</sup>/ are used mostly in imperatives and in proverbs.

čhin<sup>3</sup> wu<sup>4</sup> ta<sup>4</sup> šən šuo hwa<sup>4</sup>  
please not big voice say word (Please do not speak loud.)

šien<sup>2</sup> jən<sup>2</sup> mɔ<sup>4</sup> čin<sup>4</sup>  
unauthorized men not enter (Authorized personnel only.)

3.120 English. In the scope of this paper, negative statements have been limited to those in which {not} is used to form the negative. This excludes such negative adverbs as "rarely", "hardly" and "seldom" and adjectives such as "little" or "few" from consideration here.

a. "not" is placed after the first auxiliary. Auxiliaries are {be}, {have}, {do} and the modals. With {be}, {have} plus {not}, in speech the auxiliary may be contracted with the subject, or, in free variation, the {not} may be contracted with the auxiliary, thus: He's not coming. or, He isn't coming.

He's not left. or, He hasn't left.

except with {am}, where the former is permissible, but not the latter, thus: I'm not going. but not \*I amn't going.

In the question version of these items, if the full form {not} is used, it is placed after the subject, but if the contracted form /ənt/ is used it is placed after the verb, thus:

Is he not going? or, Isn't he going?





## 2.22 English.

a. Yes-no questions with auxiliary are formed by inversion of subject and the first auxiliary. Intonation pattern: /233↑/

2      3      1↓  
He is coming.

2      3      3↑  
Is he coming?

2      3 1↓  
She can swim.

2      3 3↑  
Can she swim?

b. Yes-no questions with verb be are formed by inversion of subject and be. Intonation pattern: /233↑/

2      3      1↓  
He is a student?

2      3      3↑  
Is he a student?

c. Yes-no questions with verbs other than (a) and (b) are formed by changing verbs to {do} + verb base form. The question word order will be {do} + subject + verb base form + post verbal. Intonation pattern: /233↑/

2      3      1↓  
He goes.

2      3 3↑  
Does he go?

d. Echo questions are formed by repeating any previous utterance but with intonation /233↑/

2      3      1↓  
He is a student.

2      3      3↑  
He is a student?

2      3 1↓  
She wrote the book.

2      3 3↑  
She wrote the book?

e. Wh-questions are a two step transformation. First, the subject, object, complement, or adverbial is replaced by an appropriate question word, such as "where", "when", "who", "why", "what", or "how". Then the wh- word is placed in the initial position and, except for questions with wh- word functioning as subject, the word order of the rest is transformed in the same manner as the yes-no questions. In questions where the wh- word

is substituted for the subject, the sentence remains in subject + verb + post verbal order, e.g., "Who wants to go?". Intonation pattern: /231↓/

2                      3    1↓  
Where are you going?

What does he want?

When can they go?

How do you feel?

Who can go?

Who are they?

3.23 Tag-question. Both languages have a type of question called the tag-question. In English, tag-questions are as follows:

Affirmative statement,	(first aux) {Be	n't + subject (in pronoun form)
Negative statement,	(first aux) {Be	+ subject (in pronoun form)

They went there,                      didn't they?

The man's a professor,              isn't he?

The girls cannot come,              can they?

He hasn't been here,                has he?

There are two basic intonation patterns:

a. Falling final contour /231↓ 31↓/ asks for agreement to the statement made.

b. Rising final contour /232→ 23↑/ signals that the speaker is not sure of the statement and asks for information.

In Mandarin, tag-questions are in the form of a statement followed by /ših<sup>4</sup> pu<sup>2</sup> ših<sup>4</sup>/ 'yes or no' or /yo<sup>3</sup> me<sup>2</sup> yo<sup>3</sup>/.

th<sup>a</sup> lay<sup>2</sup>,    ših<sup>4</sup> pu<sup>2</sup> ših<sup>4</sup>?  
he come    yes    no    yes (He's coming, isn't he?)

tha pu<sup>4</sup> lay<sup>2</sup>,    ših<sup>4</sup> pu<sup>2</sup> ših<sup>4</sup>?  
 he not come    yes no yes (He's not coming, is he?)

3.33 English negative questions are formed by inversion of subject and first auxiliary of the negative statement. Intonation pattern /233↑/

2	3	3↑	2	3	3↑
Aren't	you	going?	Are	you	not going?
Can't	he	come?	Can	he	not come?
Didn't	he	want to go?	Did	he	not want to go?

When the full form is used, there is a tendency to emphasize "not". In answering a negative question, there is a difference between English and Mandarin, i.e., form vs substance. In English, "yes" is used with a positive form and "no" with a negative form. In Mandarin, "yes" expresses agreement with what is said in the question and "no" expresses disagreement, e.g.,

niy<sup>3</sup> pu<sup>4</sup> lay<sup>2</sup> ma?  
 you not come (Aren't you coming?)

Agree:    ših<sup>4</sup>, wuo<sup>3</sup> pu<sup>4</sup> lay<sup>2</sup>  
           yes I not come (Yes, I'm not coming.)  
 Eng. No, I'm not coming.

Disagree: pu<sup>4</sup>, wuo<sup>3</sup> lay<sup>2</sup>  
           no I come (No, I'm coming.)  
 Eng. Yes, I'm coming.

3.34 From the above analysis, a parallel transformation of negative and question is noted. When {not} is used to form a negative, the question is formed by an inversion of word order; when {do not} is used in the negative transformation, the question transformation also uses {do}; therefore, to study the two transformations together could serve as reinforcement and gain more effective results.

The following are illustrations:

Base	He is a student.
Negative	He is not a student.
Question	Is he a student?
Neg Question	Isn't he a student?
	She can swim.
	She cannot swim.
	Can she swim?
	Can't she swim?
	They look alike.
	They do not look alike.
	Do they look alike?
	Don't they look alike?
	They gave us the books.
	They did not give us the books.
	Did they give us the books?
	Didn't they give us the books?
	He writes neatly?
	He does not write neatly?
	Does he write neatly?
	Doesn't he write neatly?

### 3.4 Summary and Conclusions

The following is a brief summary of the contrasts between the two languages with regard to the negative and question transformations, as derived from the preceding descriptions.



EnglishMandarin Chinese

- |   |   |
|---|---|
| <p>1. {not} is placed after the first auxiliary. {not} is placed after {be} when it functions as a full verb. For verbs without auxiliary, {do not} + verb base form is used.</p>   | <p>1. A negative particle {pu<sup>4</sup>} is used with the word negated. The particle precedes the word negated.</p>   |
| <p>2. Word order in a question (except the "echo question") is different from that of a statement. In a yes-no question, transformation of word order indicates interrogative. For verbs without auxiliary, {do} + verb base form is used. Word order in an echo question remains the same with intonation changed to /233↑/.</p> | <p>2. Word order remains the same. A question particle, such as /ma/ is used. Mandarin does not have echo questions.</p>  |
| <p>3. Wh- words are placed in the initial position of the information question.</p>   | <p>3. Question words replace the filler of the slot that requires information.</p>  |
| <p>4. A tag-question follows the patterns: "positive statement, negative tag", "negative statement,</p>   | <p>4. A tag-question is composed of a statement, negative or positive, followed by /ših<sup>4</sup> pu<sup>2</sup> ših<sup>4</sup>/ or /yo<sup>3</sup> mey<sup>2</sup> yo<sup>3</sup>/.</p> |

positive tag".

5. In answering a question, "yes" or "no" answer expresses the use of "yes" or "no" agreement or disagreement with depends on whether the the substance of the question. answer is positive or negative.
6. Time is indicated by auxi-6. Time is indicated by a particle. liary + verb phrases or by inflection.
7. Intonation: Yes-no ques. 7. Intonation: In general, tone echo question /233↑/ or tone sandhi of the sentence Tag-ques. /231↓31↓/, /232+23↑/ final constitute terminal Wh-question /231↓/ contour. Question without /ma/ has rising pitch at the end of sentence.

From the above summary of differences, we may draw the conclusions that:

1. When Mandarin speakers make negative statements or ask questions in English, word order and use of function words will be problems to them.
2. In answering negative questions, Mandarin speakers will tend to misuse "yes" and "no".
3. The relatedness of the negative and question transformations suggest that we teach the two types of transformations comparatively for more effective results.

### 3.5 Drills

The following pattern-practice drills are designed to help the learner to become familiar with the basic patterns of negative and question transformations. Simple sentences are used in most drills.

#### NEGATIVE

#### REPETITION DRILL.

#### DRILL 1. POSITIVE STATEMENTS.

LISTEN.	The man's a doctor.
	The man was a teacher.
REPEAT.	The man's a doctor.
	The man was a teacher.
	They're musicians.
	They were musicians.
	I'm going to the beach.
	She's able to come.
	I could go.
	He'll go.
	They should get the prize.
	He's completed his work.
	We speak Spanish.
	She understands Chinese.
	I spoke French.
	He told me the truth.
	I have money.
	He had your paper.
	Write in ink.

## DRILL 2. NEGATIVE STATEMENTS.

LISTEN.

The man's not a doctor.  
 The man isn't a doctor.  
 The man wasn't a teacher.

REPEAT.

The man's not a doctor.  
 The man isn't a doctor.  
 The man wasn't a teacher.  
 They're not musicians.  
 They aren't musicians.  
 They weren't musicians.  
 I'm not going to the beach.  
 She's not able to come.  
 She isn't able to come.  
 I couldn't go.  
 He won't go.  
 They shouldn't get the prize.  
 He hasn't completed his work.  
 We don't speak Spanish.  
 She doesn't understand Chinese  
 I didn't speak French.  
 He didn't tell me the truth.  
 I don't have money.  
 He didn't have your paper.  
 Don't write in ink.

TRANSFORMATION DRILL. CONTRAST POSITIVE AND NEGATIVE STATEMENTS.  
 CHANGE THE GIVEN POSITIVE SENTENCES TO  
 NEGATIVE.

## DRILL 3. LISTEN.

The man's a doctor.

The man's not a doctor.

The man isn't a doctor.

## EXERCISE.

The man's a doctor.

The man's not a doctor.

The man isn't a doctor.

The man was a teacher.

The man wasn't a teacher.

They're musicians.

They're not musicians.

They aren't musicians.

I'm going to the beach.

I'm not going to the beach.

We were here.

We weren't here.

I could go.

I couldn't go.

He'll go.

He won't go.

They should get the prize.

They shouldn't get the prize.

He's completed his work.

He's not completed his work.

He hasn't completed his work.

We speak Spanish.

We don't speak Spanish.

She understands Chinese.

She doesn't understand Chinese.

He told me the truth.

He didn't tell me the truth.

He had your paper.

He didn't have your paper.

Write in ink.

Don't write in ink.

SUBSTITUTION DRILL. SUBSTITUTE THE SUGGESTED ELEMENTS ON THE PATTERN. MAKE ANY CHANGES THAT ARE NECESSARY AS A RESULT OF THE CHANGES TO SUBSTITUTIONS.

DRILL 4. LISTEN. The man wasn't a teacher. (they)

They weren't teachers.

EXERCISE. The man wasn't a teacher. (they)

They weren't teachers.

They aren't musicians. (I)

I'm not a musician.

We're not going to the beach. (she)

She's not going to the beach.

He hasn't completed his work. (the students)

The students haven't completed their work.

I don't speak Spanish. (that girl)

That girl doesn't speak Spanish.

He didn't tell me the truth. (you)

You didn't tell me the truth.

### QUESTION

REPETITION DRILL.

DRILL 1. POSITIVE QUESTION.

LISTEN.

Is the man a doctor?

Was the man a doctor?

REPEAT.

Is the man a doctor?

Was the man a doctor?

Are you busy?

Was she able to go?

Can his friend come?

Have they completed their work?

Do you speak French?

Does she understand Chinese?

Did he write a letter?

Do they have problems?

DRILL 2. NEGATIVE QUESTION.

LISTEN.

Isn't the man a doctor?

Wasn't the man a doctor?

REPEAT.

Isn't the man a doctor?

Wasn't the man a doctor?

Aren't you busy?

Wasn't she able to go?

Can't his friend come?

Haven't they completed their work?

Don't you speak French?

Doesn't she understand Chinese?

Didn't he write a letter?

Don't they have problems?

TRANSFORMATION DRILL. CONTRAST POSITIVE QUESTIONS WITH NEGATIVE QUESTIONS. CHANGE THE GIVEN POSITIVE QUESTION TO NEGATIVE QUESTION.

DRILL 3. LISTEN.

Are they artists?

Aren't they artists?

EXERCISE.

Are they artists?

Aren't they artists?

Was that boy here yesterday?

Wasn't that boy here yesterday?

Can you go?

Can't you go?

Did he say that?

Didn't he say that?

Have you taken the test?

Haven't you taken the test?

DRILL 4. ANSWER THE GIVEN QUESTION WITH BOTH POSITIVE AND NEGATIVE ANSWERS.

LISTEN.

Are you a student?

Yes, I'm a student.

No, I'm not a student.

EXERCISE.

Are you a student?

Yes, I'm a student.

No, I'm not a student.

Weren't you here yesterday?

Yes, I was here yesterday.

No, I wasn't here yesterday.

Can he play piano?

Yes, he can play piano.

No, he can't play piano.



Has your brother been back?

Yes, he's been back.

No, he hasn't been back.

Doesn't he count this?

Yes, he counts this.

No, he doesn't count this.

Did he see you?

Yes, he saw me.

No, he didn't see me.

### TAG QUESTION

#### REPETITION DRILL.

#### DRILL 1. POSITIVE TAG QUESTION.

LISTEN.            That man's a doctor, isn't he?  
                      That man was a doctor, wasn't he?

REPEAT.            That man's a doctor, isn't he?  
                      That man was a doctor, wasn't he?  
                      They can come, can't they?  
                      She speaks English, doesn't she?  
                      You went there yesterday, didn't you?

#### DRILL 2. NEGATIVE TAG QUESTION.

LISTEN.            That man's not a doctor, is he?  
                      That man wasn't a doctor, was he?

REPEAT.            That man's not a doctor, is he?  
                      That man wasn't a doctor, was he?  
                      They can't come, can they?  
                      That girl doesn't speak English, does she?  
                      You didn't go there yesterday, did you?

TRANSFORMATION DRILL. CONTRAST POSITIVE TAG QUESTION AND NEGATIVE TAG QUESTION.

DRILL 3 LISTEN. That man's a doctor, isn't he?

That man's not a doctor, is he?

EXERCISE. That man's a doctor, isn't he?

That man's not a doctor, isn't he?

That man was a doctor, wasn't he?

That man wasn't a doctor, was he?

They can come, can't they?

They can't come, can they?

She speaks English, doesn't she?

She doesn't speak English, does she?

You went there yesterday, didn't you?

You didn't go there yesterday, did you?

DRILL 4. CONTRAST STATEMENT WITH TAG-QUESTION. CHANGE THE GIVEN STATEMENT TO TAG-QUESTION.

LISTEN. The man's a doctor.

The man's a doctor, isn't he?

The man's not a doctor, is he?

EXERCISE. The man's a doctor.

The man's a doctor, isn't he?

The man's not a doctor, is he?

The man was a doctor.

The man was a doctor, wasn't he?

The man wasn't a doctor, was he?

They can come.

They can come, can't they?

They can't come, can they?

That girl speaks English.

That girl speaks English, doesn't she?

That girl doesn't speak English, does she?

You went there yesterday.

You went there yesterday, didn't you?

You didn't go there yesterday, did you?

### INFORMATION QUESTION

TRANSFORMATION DRILL. CHANGE STATEMENT TO QUESTION WITH THE SUGGESTED WORD OR PHRASE REPLACED BY A QUESTION WORD.

DRILL 1. LISTEN. John's a doctor. (John)

Who's a doctor?

They saw John. (John)

Who did they see?

EXERCISE. John's a doctor. (John)

Who's a doctor?

They saw John. (John)

Who did they see?

His friend can come. (his)

Whose friend can come?

He has books. (books)

What does he have?

We're going to the beach. (to the beach)

Where are we going?

I believe him because he's honest. (because he's honest)

Why do you believe him?

I'm fine. (fine)

How are you?

She's leaving tomorrow. (tomorrow)

When is she leaving?

DRILL 2. ANSWER THE QUESTIONS WITH POSITIVE STATEMENT, THEN CHANGE TO NEGATIVE.

LISTEN. Who's a doctor?

The man's a doctor.

The man's not a doctor.

EXERCISE. Who's a doctor?

The man's a doctor.

The man's not a doctor.

Where are we going?

We're going to the library.

We're not going to the library.

Whose friend can come?

His friend can come.

His friend can't come.

What have they completed?

They've completed their work.

They haven't completed their work.

Who has the tape?

He has the tape.

He doesn't have the tape.

Who had the tape?

We had the tape.

We didn't have the tape.

How did it taste?

It tasted good.

It didn't taste good.

Who invited the couple?

Suzie invited the couple.

Suzie didn't invite the couple.

When are they going to Paris?

They're going to Paris this summer.

They're not going to Paris this summer.

How often does he come here?

He comes here every week.

He doesn't come here every week.

### NEGATIVE AND QUESTION

TRANSFORMATION DRILL. CONTRAST NEGATIVE STATEMENTS WITH QUESTIONS.  
CHANGE THE GIVEN STATEMENT TO NEGATIVE AND QUESTION.

LISTEN. The man's a doctor.

The man's not a doctor.

Is the man a doctor?

Isn't the man a doctor?

EXERCISE. The man's a doctor.

The man's not a doctor.

Is the man a doctor?

Isn't the man a doctor?

The man was a doctor.

The man wasn't a doctor.

Was the man a doctor?

Wasn't the man a doctor?

They're artists.

They're not artists.

Are they artists?

Aren't they artists?

They were busy.

They weren't busy.

Were they busy?

Weren't they busy?

He could go.

He couldn't go.

Could he go?

Couldn't he go?

They'll come.

They won't come.

Will they come?

Won't they come?

They speak English.

They don't speak English.

Do they speak English?

Don't they speak English?

You went there.

You didn't go there.

Did you go there?

Didn't you go there?

She likes to read.

She doesn't like to read.

Does she like to read?

Doesn't she like to read?

# FOOTNOTES

<sup>1</sup> Robert Lado, Linguistics Across Cultures (Ann Arbor: Univ of Mich Press, 1957), p. 2

<sup>2</sup> Ibid, p. 1

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<sup>14</sup> Charles C. Fries and Yao Shen, An Intensive Course in English for Chinese Students (Ann Arbor English Language Institutes, Univ of Mich, 1940)

<sup>15</sup> \_\_\_\_\_, Mandarin Chinese for English Speakers, An Oral Approach (Ann Arbor English Language Institutes, Univ of Mich, 1940)

<sup>15</sup> Pike, p. 230

- <sup>16</sup> Leo F. Engler, "Problems in English/German Contrastive Analysis", Univ of Texas Ph.D. dissertation (1962)
- 17 Max Smith, unpublished lecture, Kansas State Univ. 1967. This refers to Transformational Theory current before June, 1964.
- 18 Pike, p. 60
- 19 Stageberg, p. 85
- 20 Ibid, p. 87
- 21 Ibid,
- 22 Numbers stand for the four tones in Mandarin, a tone language:  
Chao, p. 25      Unmarked    1st tone /→/ high-level  
                       2                  2nd tone /↑/ high-rising  
                       3                  3rd tone /v/ low-dipping  
                       4                  4th tone />/ high-falling
- 23 Chao, p. 39
- 24 Ibid, p. 33
- 25 Ibid, p. 33
- 26 William J. Entwistle, Aspects of Language (London: Faber and Faber, 1951)
- 27 Aldrich, p. 49
- 28 Gleason, p. 59
- 29 Ibid, p. 74
- 30 Stageberg, pp. 93-94
- 31 Chao, p. 44
- 32 Stageberg, pp. 119-120
- 33 Lado, p. 54
- 34 Hockett, p. 199
- 35 Leo F. Engler, "Speech for Foreign Students", unpublished lecture, Kansas State Univ. 1966
- 36 Chao, p. 34

- 22 Numbers stand for the four tones in Mandarin, a tone language:  
Chao, p. 25
- |          |          |     |              |
|----------|----------|-----|--------------|
| Unmarked | 1st tone | /→/ | high-level   |
| 2        | 2nd tone | /↑/ | high-rising  |
| 3        | 3rd tone | /✓/ | low-dipping  |
| 4        | 4th tone | />/ | high-falling |

- 23 Chao, p. 39
- 24 Ibid, p. 33
- 25 Ibid, p. 33
- 26 William J. Entwistle, Aspects of Language (London: Faber and Faber, 1951)
- 27 Aldrich, p. 49
- 28 Gleason, p. 59
- 29 Ibid, p. 74
- 30 Stageberg, pp. 93-94
- 31 Chao, p. 44
- 32 Stageberg, pp. 119-120
- 33 Lado, p. 54
- 34 Hockett, p. 199
- 35 Leo F. Engler, "Speech for Foreign Students", unpublished lecture, Kansas State Univ. 1966
- 36 Chao, p. 34



37 Fries, The Structure of English, pp. 54-64

38 Gleason, pp. 44 & 169

39 Stageberg, pp. 59-61  
Gleason, pp. 46-47

40 Lado, p. 47

41 Charles F. Hockett and Chaoyang Fang, Spoken Chinese (New York: 1944), p. 256

Cf. Pickering C. S. Lee, "Intonation Patterns in English & Mandarin Chinese with Special Reference to the Role of Pitch in Signalling Question", Kansas State Univ M.A. report (1968)

42 Fries, The Structure of English, p. 73

43 Chao, p. 45

44 An endocentric structure is a structure which has the same function as one of its parts or which is replaceable by one of its parts, e.g., "those dirty tricks" replaceable by "tricks".

45 Stageberg, pp. 230-231

46 Ibid, pp. 207 & 231

47 Fries, The Structure of English, p. 108

48 Max Smith, unpublished lecture, Kansas State Univ. 1967

49 Chao, p. 51

50 See Joseph Mullie, The Structural Principles of the Chinese Language, English translation by A. C. Versichel, Peiping, 1932, vol 1, p. 160

51 Gleason, pp. 158-159

52 Chao, p. 48

53 /pu<sup>2</sup>/. Tone changed from 4th tone to 2nd tone, a tone sandhi as conditioned by the environment.

54 Aldrich, p. 49

55 Cf. Pickering C. S. Lee

56 Chao, p. 58

57 Ibid, p. 58

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SOME MORPHO-SYNTACTIC PROBLEMS  
IN TEACHING ENGLISH TO SPEAKERS OF MANDARIN CHINESE

by

PI-YU TING

B. A., National Taiwan University, 1956

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AN ABSTRACT OF A MASTER'S REPORT

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## ABSTRACT

Purpose and Scope. This report is intended to help English-teachers in preparing course materials for speakers of Mandarin Chinese learning English. Based on the premise that a language is a set of habit patterns associated with meaning and that the acquisition of a second set will suffer interference from the first set, we contrast the structures of English and Mandarin to identify the places where the interference will occur and determine the nature of the interference. With this sort of information the language teacher is better able to plan what must be taught and in what order, relative effort to be expended on respective points, and to determine most effective pedagogical procedures. For purposes of this report negation and interrogative structures in English and Mandarin have been singled out for treatment in detail, and drills suggested on the basis of the findings.

Procedure. First, a linguistic analysis, based on extant works, was adopted for the morpho-syntactic patterns of English. At each point, reference was made to the counterpart pattern in Mandarin as described in published reputable works. Next, negative and interrogative structures of English were discussed with reference to the counterpart structures in Mandarin. Paradigms and drills for English were included to illustrate inflections, and negative and question transformations.

Summary of Findings. In this contrastive study of English and Mandarin Chinese, we found that the difference in speech patterns constituted a problem for Mandarin speakers in learning English. The following are the basic findings:

1. Morphemes in English are bound as well as free but not both, while most morphemes in Mandarin are free-morphs, which can be bound in making syntactic words.
2. English parts of speech can be classified by memberships in form, position and function paradigms, while Mandarin part of speech function is flexible and dependent on the position in a sentence.
3. In English, inflection, when required, occurs in the word unit itself; while Mandarin has no inflection in the word unit itself.
4. In English count noun plural is formed from its singular noun plus a plural morpheme, whereas in Mandarin one form is used for both singular and plural.
5. In English time is indicated by auxiliary plus verb phrase or by inflection, but in Mandarin time is indicated by an adverbial or a particle.
6. English has concord between subject and verb, particularly in the third-person singular non-past tense, but in Mandarin no such agreement is required.
7. English has relatively small number of basic sentence patterns, but Mandarin has relatively larger number of basic sentence patterns.
8. English has three terminal junctures:  $/\downarrow \rightarrow \uparrow/$ ; Mandarin

has two terminal junctures: /↓↑/.

9. Pitch in English is over the phrase; pitch in Mandarin is over each word.

10.. In English, articles and prepositions are essential in some structures; but Mandarin has no articles and generally prepositions are not used.

11. In English placement of negative morpheme {not} is more variable, but in Mandarin negative particles generally precede the words negated.

12. In English word order for yes-no question forms differs from the statement order and signals the question structure; in Mandarin, the order remains the same.

13. In English question words are commonly placed utterance initially, but in Mandarin question words replace the filler of the slot that requires information.

14. English tag questions have structural concord between the statement and the tag; Mandarin tag questions have no such structural concord.